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MANPOWER TRAINING PROGRAMS IN SOUTH DAKOTA: SOCIO-ECONOMIC
ATTRIBUTES OF PARTICIPANTS ASSOCIATED WITH TRAINING OUTCOMES

By

James W. DeLong

A thesis submitted
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the
degree Master of Science, Major in
Rural Sociology, South Dakota
State University

1972

MANPOWER TRAINING PROGRAMS IN SOUTH DAKOTA: SOCIO-ECONOMIC
ATTRIBUTES OF PARTICIPANTS ASSOCIATED WITH TRAINING OUTCOMES

This thesis is approved as a creditable and independent investigation by a candidate for the degree, Master of Science, and is acceptable for meeting the thesis requirements for this degree. Acceptance of this thesis does not imply that the conclusions reached by the candidate are necessarily the conclusions of the major department.

Thesis Advisor

Date

Head, Rural Sociology Department

Date

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to express my sincerest appreciation to the following individuals for their assistance in my endeavors:

The staff members of the Rural Sociology Department of South Dakota State University for at some stage in the development of this study I have received assistance and support from each of them;

Dr. Robert M. Dimit, my thesis advisor and project leader;

Professor Howard M. Sauer, my major advisor;

Dr. Marvin P. Riley, Dr. Robert T. Wagner, Dr. James L. Satterlee, and Professor Orville E. Lanham, faculty members in the Rural Sociology Department;

Mr. Alan Williamson, Commissioner, Mr. E. W. Ridgeway, Assistant to the Commissioner, Mr. Ralph Tieszen, Director of Employment, Mr. Dan Bock, Mr. Dennis Peklhooffer, and Mr. Jewel Husby of the Employment Security Department of South Dakota, for without the cooperation of these individuals this study would not have been possible. The time and interest they have given was very valuable and much appreciated.

JWD

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

During the last few decades, observers have witnessed the displacement of millions of farm laborers and the elimination of many small farms from the rural areas of this country. Nonfarm industries in or near rural areas have not grown fast enough to absorb both these displaced workers and also the new entrants into the labor force. The people who remain in rural areas face declining employment opportunities, and those who migrate have to make difficult adjustments to city jobs, for which they frequently lack preparation.

South Dakota is primarily a rural state. It has an economy based upon a diversified agriculture, and the State has experienced a population decline in its rural areas. Attendant with these problems are the continuing problems of rural poverty and underemployment. At the present, the wage base of South Dakota is below the national average. Wages have been increasing, due in part to new federal minimum wage standards; but the increase is still below the increase in the cost of living.¹

Compared to most states, South Dakota has a high proportion of American Indians, the majority of whom reside on reservations.

¹The South Dakota Comprehensive Manpower Plan for Fiscal Year 1972, A Report Prepared by the South Dakota State Planning Agency, (Pierre: 1971), p. S-2.

The Indian population tends to be younger than the white population, to attain lower educational levels, and to encounter difficulty adapting to white culture. Most of the Indians reside in rural areas of the State and are not willing to move to more urban areas for more favorable employment opportunities.² The reservations do not offer sufficient employment opportunities as they lack the economic resources to provide most of their residents with an adequate living. The unemployment rate on some of the reservations runs as high as 70 to 80 percent. The majority of those who are employed are working in semi-skilled and unskilled occupations.³

The federal government has expressed concern over rural occupational problems. The President's National Advisory Commission on Rural Poverty in 1967 concluded:

More manpower services are needed to assess the capabilities of rural workers, to determine their problems, and to help them to prepare for jobs that afford self-esteem, dignity, and earnings to lift them out of poverty and to prevent others from falling below the poverty line.⁴

There are many federally sponsored manpower training and retraining programs currently operating within the State that are attempting

²South Dakota Annual Manpower Planning Report, A Report Prepared by the Research and Statistics Branch of the Employment Security Dept. of South Dakota, (Aberdeen: 1972), p. 4.

³Samuel Ganz, "The Social Roots of Unemployment," The Manpower Revolution: Its Policy and Consequences, ed. by Garth C. Magnum, (Garden City, New York: Doubleday & Company, Inc., 1965), pp. 153-172.

⁴Manpower Report of the President, A Report Prepared by the Department of Labor, (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1971), p. 116.

to contribute to the reduction of rural manpower problems; however, the educational and training services have not been comparable to such services operating in urban areas. Employment problems in scattered populations are not as visible as they are in urban areas, and there are difficulties in servicing rural areas.⁵

Because of the unemployment, underemployment, poverty and occupational opportunity problems experienced in South Dakota, it is appropriate that manpower programs currently operating in the State be studied. To maximize the potential benefits of these programs it is necessary to understand their structure, their purpose, their goals and their effects. Likewise, the extent of participation in the programs should be determined along with finding out what type of trainee is benefitting the least or the most from the training experience.

There has been considerable research into a wide spectrum of manpower programs and manpower needs in urban areas; however, relatively little has been researched into the ways the same programs are operating and affecting the manpower problems in rural areas. Responding to this deficiency, the Rural Sociology Department of South Dakota State University began in Fall, 1971, a research project directed to producing greater understanding of the manpower programs

⁵The People Left Behind, A Report Prepared by the President's National Advisory Commission on Rural Poverty, (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1971), p. 26.

currently operating in South Dakota. The general aims of the research project include the following:

1. A description of the manpower programs currently operating in South Dakota.
2. An assessment of the degree of success of the various manpower programs.
3. An examination of the association between possible differential participation rates and degrees of success to selected demographic, social, and economic characteristics of the participants.

Before a comprehensive determination and evaluation of success, or lack of success, was attempted, and the relationships of demographic, social, and economic variables to program success were tested, some preliminary examinations were seen as advisable. Available sources of information on selected manpower programs needed to be identified, and available sources of data on the characteristics of the participants in the programs gathered. An exploratory study was needed to examine the association between the socio-economic characteristics of participants in the programs to one criterion of success, namely, completion of the training programs. This study was done in conjunction with the research project mentioned above in an effort to fulfill some of the descriptive and exploratory needs of the project.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study is to examine selected manpower training programs currently in operation in South Dakota. The study is exploratory in nature and is an attempt to identify those socio-economic variables that are significantly associated with the training outcomes of the program participants.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The problem with which this study is concerned can be stated as follows: Is there an association between selected socio-economic characteristics of trainees and their completion of selected manpower programs?

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

In accordance with the purposes of this study, the objectives are as follows:

1. Describe the extent of participation in the selected programs.
2. Describe selected socio-economic characteristics of participants in the programs.
3. Test the association between the selected characteristics and the nature of the terminations of the programs by the participants.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

As there is only one other study, to this writer's knowledge, similar to this study, it will be covered in some detail, along with a more general treatment of works that are considered relevant to the background for this research.

Sigmund Noscov, under a contract granted to Michigan State University by the Department of Labor, conducted research directed at producing greater understanding of the programs funded under the Manpower Development and Training Act, 1962.¹ Noscov's research used a sample of program participants from four central cities in Michigan and dealt with sociological, socio-psychological and psychological characteristics of participants that entered the MDTA programs in Michigan between the years 1963 and 1965. Part of the study used program completion as the dependent variable and the social and psychological attributes of trainees as the independent variables in a set of specific hypotheses which related the social and psychological variables to training outcomes.²

Noscov found that most of the participants completed the training, over 72 percent. Those that were marginal to the labor

¹Sigmund Noscov, "Retraining Under the Manpower Development and Training Act: A Study of Attributes of Trainees Associated with Successful Retraining." A Report for the U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Admin., (East Lansing, Michigan: Michigan State University, 1968), p. 1(1).

²Ibid., p. 1(2)

force, the youthful, the aged, the poorly educated, the non-white, the female persons, who completed their retraining tended to lose this marginal characteristic. Those who did not complete the programs tended to keep their marginal status.³

A situation that must be included with successful completion are those that drop out to take employment. Those not disadvantaged, or least disadvantaged, such as young white males, are in the most advantageous positions to obtain employment. Their dropping out is an expression of their mobility, not their failure. Noscow found this mobility to be present but related to labor market conditions.⁴

Noscow felt that the high dropout rates in the programs were not primarily because the trainees didn't have the abilities to complete the training. Also, it was only for flagrant cases of ineptitude or disruptive behavior that persons had been asked to leave the programs. Those who prematurely terminated the training without having secured employment are assumed to have dropped out because of inability, psychological set, conflicting demands, or for a variety of reasons. Most have apparently dropped out for a variety of reasons.⁵

³Ibid., p. 3(1).

⁴Ibid., pp. 3(7) and 4(1).

⁵Ibid., p. 4(17).

In his study, Noscow found no significant differences in rates of success between white and non-white trainees. However, breaking this down into sexes, it was found that white males had a significantly higher rate of success compared to non-white males. On the other hand, non-white females were significantly more successful than white female trainees which offset the contrary pattern among male trainees. Within the races, no significant difference was found between white males and white females in terms of successful completion. A similar comparison between non-white males and non-white females showed the women to have a significantly higher rate of successful completion.⁶

Taken alone, education as a variable did not explain the differences in course completion. In different combinations, age, sex, education, and race became interrelated variables that showed significant differences between different combinations. Marital status and number of dependents did not significantly affect training outcomes.⁷

It should be pointed out that Noscow's study is dissimilar to this study in several important aspects:

1. Noscow's study was done in a highly industrialized state and the sample consisted of participants from urban areas.
2. Noscow's study involved a non-white group comprised almost entirely of Negro persons. There is no category of American Indians.

⁶Ibid., p. 24.

⁷Ibid., p. 4(33).

3. Noscow's study was done in communities that offered greater employment opportunities than a rural area. Michigan, unlike South Dakota, is not experiencing an out-migration of population.

The incidence of poverty is higher in rural areas than in cities. In 1969 half of the nation's poor lived outside metropolitan areas, although little more than a third of the population lived there. Poverty is not only more frequent, but more severe in rural areas.⁸ The disadvantaged in rural areas are not congruent in their problems with the urban disadvantaged. In his effort to define "disadvantaged" peoples, Havighurst includes the rural aspect in his description of their characteristics which are:

1. They are at the bottom of American society in terms of income.
2. They usually have a rural background.
3. They usually suffer from social and economic discrimination at the hands of the majority of society.⁹

Satterlee, in an unpublished dissertation, reported his research findings concerning the characteristics of the rural poor which included the following:

1. The median family income was \$2,300 or \$700 below the average poverty level set by the federal government.

⁸Manpower Report of the President, op. cit., p. 116.

⁹Robert J. Havighurst, "Who Are the Disadvantaged," The Disadvantaged Learner, ed. Staten W. Webster, (San Francisco: Chandler Publishing Co., 1966), p. 24.

2. The average family size was six persons compared to a national average of 3.5.

3. The heads-of-household were low income people who tended to be sporadically employed in undesirable locations. Many were employed as marginal farm operators and laborers.¹⁰

A number of studies during the past few decades, including "Elmtown," "Middletown," "Plainville," "Deep South," and others:

. . . Indicate that differences in occupation, income, wealth, and education lead to the formation of local status groups which display consistently different forms of behavior and which have different ideas, attitudes, values, and tastes.¹¹

Mayer and Buckley point out that status groups are not identical to social class in that a status group can be characterized by specific behavior patterns, a definite style of life.¹²

A current debate among some sociologists is concerned with the existence of a status group or subculture that Lewis refers to as "the culture of poverty." It is Lewis' contention that there is a particular subculture among some of the poor characterized by a particular life style that transcends national and regional boundaries. It only includes some of the poor that are living in class-stratified,

¹⁰James L. Satterlee, "Characteristics of Low Income Families in Eastern South Dakota: An Examination of the Culture of Poverty Concept," (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, South Dakota State University, Brookings, 1970), p. 133.

¹¹Kurt Mayer and Walter Buckley, Class and Society, (New York: Random House, 1969), p. 87.

¹²Ibid., p. 88.

highly individualistic, capitalistic societies. The culture of poverty is an adaption and reaction of the poor to their marginal position in such a society. It represents an effort to cope with feelings of hopelessness and despair.¹³

Lewis found from his experiences that wherever the culture of poverty occurs there are similarities in family structures, interpersonal relations, spending habits and value systems. The poverty subculture tends to perpetuate itself and is characterized by such traits as chronic unemployment or underemployment, low income, and lack of property. There are also many social and psychological traits that distinguish the culture of poverty members.¹⁴

Matza makes a very similar argument but uses the term "the disreputable poor." The members are similar to Lewis' group in that they include the people who remain unemployed, or are casually and irregularly employed, even during periods approaching full employment and prosperity.¹⁵ They can not be easily reformed or rehabilitated through the simple provision of employment, training or guidance. Skidders, or those who have a long history of downward social mobility,

¹³Oscar Lewis, "The Culture of Poverty," Issues, Debates and Controversies: An Introduction to Sociology, ed. George Ritzer, (Boston: Allyn & Bacon, Inc., 1972), p. 471.

¹⁴Ibid., p. 474.

¹⁵David Matza, "The Disreputable Poor," Class, Status and Power, ed. Reinhard Bendix and Seymour Martin Lipset, (New York: The Free Press, 1966), p. 290.

are a component of Matza's disreputable poor. Skidders would include alcoholics, addicts, perverts, and otherwise disturbed individuals who have a history of skidding.¹⁶

In their study of "Springdale," Vidich and Bensman identify a similar group that they refer to as "shack people." The shack people are characterized by low incomes, irregular employment in unskilled occupations, a design for living that rejects middle class life styles, and lack of planning for the future.¹⁷

From the point of view that holds to a belief in the existence of a culture of poverty, for the members of such a status group to experience upward career mobility would require changes in values and attitudes in addition to receiving jobs and income support. Others, such as Valentine and Anderson, contend that people are not poor because of culturally transmitted poverty. They are poor simply because they lack money.¹⁸ This issue is far from being resolved. Dealing with rural areas, Satterlee was not able to identify many of the traits that Lewis had mentioned.¹⁹ More refined and operationalized

¹⁶Ibid., p. 292.

¹⁷Arther J. Vidich and Joseph Bensman, Small Town in Mass Society: Class, Power and Religion in a Rural Community, (Garden City, New York: Doubleday and Company, Inc., 1960), pp. 69-70.

¹⁸C. A. Anderson, Toward A New Sociology: A Critical View, (Homewood, Illinois: The Dorsey Press, 1971), p. 168.

¹⁹Satterlee, op. cit., p. 129.

definitions are necessary and further research is needed to shed more light on the debate over the applicability of the "culture of poverty" hypothesis.

The existence of a special status group or subculture among the poor is only of interest to this study in regard to the extent of its influence on career mobility. Much research has supported the view that social and psychological factors determine, to a large extent, an individual's capacity for exploiting his available opportunities for upward social mobility. Summarizing the occupational and educational decision-making of rural youth, Horner, Buterbaugh, and Carefoot listed seventeen different sociological and twelve different economic factors that had a significant influence. Among the factors they listed were:

1. Sex
2. Previous work experience
3. Ethnic group
4. Socio-economic position in the family
5. Need for status
6. Heterogeneity of the social contacts of the family
7. Peer group pressure
8. Quality and quantity of financial resources of the family and of the individual

9. Level of income aspiration
10. Stereotyped thinking which may result from a low status environment.²⁰

Perrucci and Perrucci contend that individual values and a relatively low level of aspiration may operate as internal constraints upon motivation, thus lowering the probability that an available opportunity structure will be utilized.²¹ Slocum observed that a combination of factors influence decisions regarding occupational choice. The factors include "personal variables," such as age, physical characteristics, aptitudes, interests, and personal history. Also included are such factors as cultural norms and values, job requirements, employment opportunities, perceived interpersonal relationships, and reference group values.²²

Other factors that are argued to have a relationship with occupational achievement are unemployment and public assistance experiences. It is the position of Vasey that, "In this society, a job is a passport to self-respect. It provides a feeling of

²⁰James Horner, James Buterbaugh, and Judith Carefoot, Factors Relating to Occupational and Educational Decision-Making of Rural Youth, a research summary, Department of Agricultural Education, Report No. 1, (Lincoln: University of Nebraska, 1967).

²¹Carolyn Perrucci and Robert Perrucci, "Social Origins, Educational Contexts and Career Mobility," American Sociological Review, Vol. 35 (June, 1970), pp. 451-452.

²²Walter L. Slocum, "Some Sociological Aspects of Occupational Choice," American Journal of Economics and Sociology, Vol. 18 (1958-59), pp. 139-147.

membership in our society."²³ Persistent unemployment can, therefore, have an eroding effect on the personality and places a perpetuating blight on the family.²⁴ Long-term unemployment brings with it a sense of hopelessness and rejection which not only extends itself into the families, but also into the social groups and communities to which the unemployment belong.²⁵ Workers over 45 are more likely to experience long-term unemployment as they have greater difficulty finding another job after a period of unemployment.²⁶ Those who are on public assistance are also likely to be found among the unemployed. Today, public assistance has a much larger proportion on its rolls who are unequipped by capacity, education or skill to earn a reasonable income.²⁷

The influence of factors related to social and cultural origins on career mobility has been observed in studies dealing with the

²³Dr. Wayne Vasey, "The Interrelation Between Public Assistance and Unemployment," The Manpower Revolution: Its Policy and Consequences, ed. Garth C. Mangum, (Garden City, New York: Doubleday & Company, Inc., 1965), pp. 197-207.

²⁴Ibid.

²⁵Ganz, op. cit.

²⁶Ibid.

²⁷Vasey, op. cit.

American Indians. Tiffany, Cowan and Tiffany consider the American Indian to be the most socially isolated and disadvantaged minority in our nation.²⁸ More than half of the Indian population reside on reservations, and live on family incomes averaging \$1,500 annually. Their average level of formal education achieved is 5.5 years. Indian teenagers have a suicide rate three times higher than the national level and alcoholism is a major problem of both sexes.²⁹

Unemployment has been a continuing problem among the Indians. In 1960 their unemployment rate was 14.5 percent. On some reservations the rate of unemployment reaches as high as 70 to 80 percent. The majority of male Indians who are employed are working in unskilled or semi-skilled occupations.³⁰

In an unpublished thesis, Faas claims that the American Indian has experienced a relative isolation on the reservations that has affected the degree of their assimilation into the normative American way of life. Faas' study produced findings of significant relationships between the socio-economic characteristics of Indian participants in employment assistance programs and their termination of program services.³¹

²⁸Donald W. Tiffany, James R. Cowan, and Phyllis M. Tiffany, The Unemployed: A Social-Psychological Portrait, (Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1970).

²⁹Danial G. Faas, "A Study of Selected Factors Associated With Participants In The Bureau of Indian Affairs Employment Assistance Program on a South Dakota Indian Reservation," (unpublished Master's thesis, South Dakota State University, Brookings, 1970), p. 82.

³⁰Ganz, op. cit., p. 161.

³¹Faas, op. cit.

The primary purpose of the MDTA programs has been to improve or increase the knowledge and skills of the participants in the programs through education in order to enhance their occupational opportunities. Education has long been recognized as the primary means of social mobility in our nation.³² Mayer and Buckley consider educational opportunity to be the single most important factor for allowing persons to break out of the class cycle. It is an important means of social mobility.³³ However, Whyte maintains that education is not a sufficient means of opportunity for underprivileged groups. He states:

Education fails to motivate underprivileged groups because our schools and society both lack real rewards to offer underprivileged groups. Neither lower class children nor adults will work hard in school or on the job just to please the teacher or the boss. They are not going to learn to be ambitious, to be conscientious, and to study hard, as if school and work were a fine character-building game, which one plays just for the sake of playing.³⁴

³²Hodges, op. cit., p. 260.

³³Mayer and Buckley, op. cit., pp. 56-57.

³⁴William F. Whyte, The Motivation of the Underprivileged Worker, (Hightstown, New Jersey: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1946).

DESCRIPTION OF MANPOWER PROGRAMS SELECTED

The Manpower Development and Training Act Programs

The Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962 (MDTA) was the second (after the Area Redevelopment Act) of the New Frontier-Great Society anti-unemployment programs. It was, in effect, an emergency recession measure designed to provide technologically displaced, experienced, family heads with subsistence while they acquire new skills. It was assumed that technological advances and changes were a cause of unemployment by making the skills of workers obsolete or insufficient. Through state-operated vocational schools or private on-the-job training, the workers would acquire the skills to fill existing job vacancies.³⁵

When the bill was conceived, the country was experiencing a high unemployment rate of six percent, with five percent of the nation's married men seeking jobs. However, by the time the program went into operation, the unemployment rate had started to decline but the country was experiencing a rising teenage unemployment rate. In 1963 the bill was amended to include many of the unemployed youth.³⁶

³⁵Garth L. Mangum, MDTA: Foundation of Federal Manpower Policy, (Baltimore: John Hopkins Press, 1968), pp. 10-14.

³⁶Ibid., pp. 19-34.

As the nation's unemployment rate declined to 3.9 percent by the summer of 1966, the legislature turned their attention to the heavy concentrations of unemployment that still existed in inner-city ghettos and depressed rural areas. The early participants in the MDTA programs did not include a very high percentage of hard-core unemployed or disadvantaged persons. Those that were the least "marginal" to the labor force were the ones that tended to receive acceptance for training. However, in recent years, the program's priorities have changed to trying to provide greater help for the disadvantaged. The act was amended again in 1966 in order to broaden the types of training that could be offered and to provide for physical examinations and minor health services. The new amendments also included older workers (over 45), lessened eligibility requirements and expanding the goals of the program to "increase the employability" of the trainees. The present purposes of the MDTA programs are to help bring people to entry levels in the manpower market by training, retraining, or upgrading their occupational skills. The programs provide occupational training for those unemployed and underemployed persons who cannot reasonably be expected to obtain appropriate full-time employment without such training.³⁷

³⁷Biennial Report to the Governor, For the Period July 1, 1969 to June 30, 1971, A Report Prepared by the Employment Security Department of South Dakota, (Aberdeen: 1971), pp. 18-19.

The MDTA programs may include basic education as well as the development of skills. For some trainees, the inclusion of basic education is necessary for them to enter an occupational program or find a reasonable job. However, the education or training offered cannot be such as to lead to a degree.

The MDTA programs are jointly administered by the U.S. Department of Labor and the Health, Education and Welfare Department. Within the State of South Dakota, the responsibilities for the administration and implementation of the programs are jointly shared by the Employment Security Department and the Vocational Education Department of South Dakota.³⁸

The Employment Security Department has the responsibility for project development, selection and referral of trainees, counseling, testing, payment of allowances, and follow-up on trainees. The local employment offices receive the applications of persons wishing to enter the programs. The applications are referred to the State Employment Security Department in Aberdeen, South Dakota, where final selection is made. In the selection of participants for the programs, veterans are given the first priority. Next in priority are those who are living with an income below the poverty level (meeting the

³⁸Ibid.

income criteria of being disadvantaged), followed by those who are unemployed, underemployed, or otherwise hindered from obtaining work. Next in the line of priorities are those under 22, over 45, handicapped, educationally deficient, or a member of a minority group. The Employment Security Department tries to select the participants so that around 65 percent are from the "disadvantaged" group.

The Vocational Education Department is responsible for curriculum development, securing the teaching staff, providing teaching needs, and conducting the training. Most training in the MDTA programs are provided at the state supported vocational-education schools located at Sioux Falls, Watertown, Mitchell, Rapid City, and Sturgis, South Dakota. The Schools of Practical Nursing at Sioux Falls and Pierre, South Dakota are also used extensively. However, the MDTA training is not restricted to these schools. Some trainees attend private schools or other public institutions.

During the Fiscal Year 1970, 386 persons participated in the various MDTA programs. Of those trainees who were no longer active in the program, 84 percent completed the program. In 1971 there were 13 different MDTA projects developed to train 541 participants.

Jobs Opportunities in the Business Sector Programs

The legislative authority for the Jobs Opportunities in the Business Section programs (JOBS) is derived from the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 and the Manpower Development and Training Act

of 1962. The programs are presently funded under the Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962.

The JOBS programs represent a cooperative effort between the U.S. Government and private businessmen to provide on-the-job training. The purposes of the programs are to hire and train disadvantaged individuals and to upgrade the needed skills of other employees.

There are two JOBS Programs, "The National Alliance of Businessmen-Jobs Opportunities in the Business Sector (NAB/JOBS)," and the "JOBS Optional Program (JOPS)." The differences between the two programs involve eligibility requirements and the extent of reimbursement for supportive services. Only persons certified as "disadvantaged" are eligible for the NAB/JOBS program. The JOP program may include up to 50 percent who are not disadvantaged so that some youth who are not considered disadvantaged may participate. Both programs reimburse the employer 50 percent of the trainee's salary which is to pay for the extra-ordinary costs of providing on-the-job training for the trainees. However, under the NAB/JOBS program (which is also referred to as the "high support" program) the government will reimburse the employer for supportive services such as job related education, special counseling, medical and dental services, supervisory and human relations training, orientation, transportation, child care assistance, and administrative costs.

Under the JOP program (the "low support" program) the employer is not reimbursed for supportive services. Trainee needs of such services are referred to other agencies.³⁹

All JOBS programs are negotiated fixed price contracts. There is one Project Coordinator and four Contract Service Representatives in South Dakota who are responsible for promoting, negotiating, and servicing both JOBS programs. Both programs are administered by the South Dakota Employment Security Department, as the Department is designed as the State On-The-Job Training Agency in South Dakota.⁴⁰

Both programs are available to profit and nonprofit organizations within the private sector. No government agencies, whether federal, state, or local are eligible to participate. Those companies that participate have guidelines that they must follow. For instance, the employer must hire the trainee into a full-time position, he must pay at least the minimum wage according to federal guidelines, and he is expected to provide permanent full-time employment for the trainees upon completion of the contract. The employer is required to increase the wages of the trainees an appropriate amount at the end of the training period.

The trainees receive no direct government support from the JOBS programs. They receive their financial income from the employers.

³⁹Biennial Report to the Governor, op. cit., pp. 22-23.

⁴⁰Ibid.

The State Employment Service has the direct responsibility for certifying JOBS program applicants as disadvantaged. They also have the primary role in the recruitment and referrals to job openings. In South Dakota, from December, 1970 to July, 1971, 145 persons were employed under the JOP program. From July, 1970 to June, 1971, 227 persons were employed under the NAB/JOBS program. The percentage of those who entered the program and completed the program over the past four years is approximately 70 percent.⁴¹

⁴¹Ibid.

CHAPTER III

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

According to Hodges,¹ social stratification is the study of social strata or social classes which are considered to be a blended product of shared and analogous occupational orientations, educational backgrounds, economic wherewithall, and life experiences. These strata or social class levels are more than statistical categories.

Hodges states:

There is evidence that our positions in the social class structure are increasingly potent influences in determining our social behavior.²

Social classes in America are not legally or rigidly defined. There are no official class positions. A democratic society, such as America, may even have an unwillingness to accept their reality. But social class differences are a reality and they do influence the ways of life of their members.³

The first dimension of social stratification is the economic. Different amounts and sources of income serve as convenient means used by society to control the entrance of persons into positions in

¹Harold M. Hodges, Social Stratification: Class In America, (Cambridge: Shenkman Publishing Company, Inc., 1964), p. 13.

²Ibid., p. 14.

³Mayer and Buckley, op. cit., p. 44.

society. Thus, the economic aspect becomes one of the most important criteria for determining social status.⁴ Also, there is a positive, although not perfect, correlation between income and the prestige of occupations.⁵ Occupational achievement is generally measured in terms of a person's level in the occupational prestige hierarchy.⁶

It is Mayer and Buckley's contention that:

Occupations have the effect of segregating groupings of individuals differentially into neighborhoods, mutual interaction networks, and common-experience groupings. All of which leads to the development or perpetuation of subcultures.⁷

Thus, aggregates of individuals which are in similar occupations and/or economic positions have similar chances to obtain the values and opportunities that are of primary importance in life.⁸

Social mobility refers to the movement of individuals from one social level to another. While past research has been concerned primarily with mobility involving intergenerational comparisons of occupations, more recent research has also looked at the occupational changes and movements that occur over the course of an individual's

⁴Kingsley Davis and Wilbert Moore, "Some Principles of Stratification," in George Ritzer, Issues, Debates, and Controversies: An Introduction to Sociology, (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1972), p. 215.

⁵Rural Poverty in the United States, A Report Prepared by the President's National Advisory Commission on Rural Poverty, (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1971), p. 150.

⁶Ibid.

⁷Mayer and Buckley, op. cit., p. 45

⁸Ibid.

working lifetime. This intragenerational movement is referred to as career mobility.⁹

From the start, empirical studies of social stratification have acknowledged social and psychological factors in the status attainment process. Featherman reports Lipset and Bendix's suggestion that by merging the sociological and psychological approaches to the study of mobility, the study of the mechanisms through which individuals and groups reach their positions in the stratification structure might be advanced.¹⁰

Involved in the training and retraining of individuals for new occupational roles is the process of socialization. While there are many different definitions of socialization, Merton uses the term to refer to:

The process by which people selectively acquire the values, attitudes, interests, skills, and knowledge--in short, the culture--current in the groups to which they are, or seek to become, a member. It refers to the learning of social roles.¹¹

Occupational socialization refers to the formal training or actual occupational performance necessary to assume the roles and perform the duties of a particular occupation. Occupational socialization is usually within the realm of adult socialization. Although

⁹Ronald M. Pavalko, Sociology of Occupations and Professions, (Itasca: F. E. Peacock Publishers, Inc., 1971), p. 110.

¹⁰David L. Featherman, "Achievement Orientations and Socio-Economic Career Attainments," in American Sociological Review, Vol. 37, (New York: American Sociological Association, April, 1972).

¹¹Pavalko, op. cit., p. 81.

adult socialization is fundamentally similar to childhood socialization in that both entail the acquisition of norms and role expectations from the group or culture, Pavalko has pointed out an important difference in that:

Adult socialization must be approached with a recognition that the process frequently involves, in addition to the learning of new roles and norms, the unlearning or relinquishing of old norms and roles, the extension of old ones, and the possibility of holding conflicting norms and occupying conflicting roles.¹²

Except for the returning Viet Nam era veterans, the trainees in the Manpower Development and Training programs are composed mostly of those who are either unemployed or underemployed, or of other persons who cannot reasonably be expected to obtain appropriate full-time employment without training. Two terms which are often used to refer to the trainees are "disadvantaged" or "marginal." It is not expected that these "disadvantaged" will make the upward career mobility involved in successfully completing manpower training programs without some difficulty. Part of their struggle will be against the perpetuation of social classes.

Mayer and Buckley¹³ developed a life-cycle model of the perpetuation of social classes. They state that adult members of different classes hold differential positions in the social and economic

¹²Ibid., p. 83.

¹³Mayer and Buckley, op. cit., p. 49.

organization of society. This creates and perpetuates interaction differentials. The class members tend to be segregated and to live and interrelate with one another within similar life experiences. As a result, class subcultures with distinct features tend to develop. The new generations of children born into such subcultures are socialized and educated in different ways. The different socialization and education experiences shape class differences in personality traits and acquired skills which, to the extent that they are relevant to the qualifications necessary for recruitment into adult social positions in society, lead back to the categories of different positions in the social organization. Therefore, you have a cycle, or the perpetuation of social classes.¹⁴

By the time a person has reached adulthood, social class and its attendant type of socialization has acted as an important factor in shaping the various social and psychological attributes that influence entering an occupation and experiencing occupational mobility.

Looking at the problem dealt with in this research, it is anticipated that the participants in the manpower programs share similar positions in the stratification structure of our society. The majority of the participants also share a similar status group membership which is referred to as "disadvantaged." Social stratification studies reveal that members of a particular stratum tend to interrelate with

¹⁴Ibid.

one another and have similar incomes, occupations, education, and life experiences. Due to the interrelationships and similarities in the lives of the members within a stratum position, it is expected, as indicated by the literature reviewed within this study, that the stratum position influences the socialization experiences of members of that stratum. Children of different social strata tend to be exposed to different socialization patterns, resulting in different social, economic and psychological characteristics identifiable within status groupings. Members of similar status groupings, such as the disadvantaged, tend to share similar life styles, values, attitudes, aspirations, acquired skills, and other social, psychological and economic attributes that influence the extent to which opportunities for career mobility are available and their motivation to pursue them. Thus, it is anticipated in this study that the social and economic characteristics of participants in the manpower training programs will be associated with the extent of success realized in their attempts toward career mobility through the channel of manpower training programs.

Two manpower training programs currently operating in the State of South Dakota were chosen for this study. The first chosen was one of the "Manpower Development and Training Act" programs, hereafter referred to in this study as MDTA. The second was the "Job Opportunities In The Business Sector" programs, hereafter referred to in this study as JOBS.

This study does not try to measure social mobility nor the extent of the influence of differential socialization and status group

membership on career mobility. However, using the above as a frame of reference, this study attempts to isolate those socio-economic characteristics of trainees in the MDTA and JOBS programs that significantly influence the success, or lack of success, in one area of training outcomes. One of the anticipated outcomes of this study will be the development of groundwork for more precise investigation into these areas of social mobility, differential socialization and career mobility.

HYPOTHESES

For participants in the MDTA and JOBS programs:

1. Sex and racial characteristics are associated with program completion.
2. The years of formal education are associated with program completion.
3. The length of previous unemployment is associated with program completion.
4. The experience of being a welfare recipient is associated with program completion.
5. Being in the position of head-of-household is associated with program completion.
6. The number of dependents is associated with program completion.
7. Having a "disadvantaged" status is associated with program completion.

8. Their age is associated with program completion.
9. Their previous income level is associated with program completion.

In testing the hypotheses, the completion and noncompletion of the programs are the dependent variables. The socio-economic characteristics of the participants are the independent variables.

CHAPTER IV

METHODOLOGY

SAMPLE

The data for this study were secured from the records of the Employment Security Department of South Dakota. Specific information was taken from the application forms that are filled-out by the local Employment Security Offices for every person applying to enter the MDTA program. Data were also taken from the termination reports which are filled-out upon the termination of each trainee, regardless of reason, from the program. In a like manner, data were collected from the application and termination forms filled-out for the JOBS programs trainees. The application and termination reports for the JOBS programs are different from the forms used for the MDTA program, but they are similar in content.

This study consists of two different samples. One sample consists of 202 participants in the MDTA program in South Dakota during 1970 and 1971. The other sample consists of 157 participants in the JOBS programs in South Dakota during the same period of time. On-the-job training is considered to be sufficiently different, by this investigator, from institutional or classroom training as a means of achieving training objectives, that they are dealt with separately in the statistical tests.

DEFINITIONS

1. Unemployed Individual: refers to a person who is able to work and available for full-time employment and has no job.¹

2. Training: refers to a planned and systematic sequence of instruction or learning experience on an individual or group basis under supervision. Training is designed to impart skills, knowledge, or abilities to prepare individuals for employment.²

3. Underemployed Individuals: includes persons working only part-time or working below their skill capacity. It also includes persons who have received notice that they will be working less than full-time or will become unemployed because their skill is becoming obsolete, and who need training to acquire skills that are in demand.³

4. Social Stratification: refers to the social strata or social classes that are considered to be a blended product of shared and analogous occupational orientations, educational backgrounds, economic wherewithall, and life experiences.

5. Career Mobility: refers to the vertical occupational changes and movements that occur over the course of an individual's lifetime.

¹MDTA Handbook, U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration Bureau of Employment Security, United States Employment Service, (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1971).

²Ibid.

³Ibid.

6. Status Group: refers to unique groupings within a stratified social structure sharing similar behavior patterns, life styles, and other social, psychological and economic characteristics.

7. Subculture: refers to the normative system of a group smaller than a total society. It may refer to the norms of a subgroup whose members experience sufficient frustration for them to develop values contrary to prevailing values in the larger society.

8. Socialization: refers to the process of acquiring the values, attitudes, interests, skills, knowledge, and other aspects of the culture of the group to which one belongs or aspires to belong.

OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS OF VARIABLES

The nature of the terminations of trainees participating in the MDTA and JOBS programs is the source of the dependent variables in this study. The terminations are divided into two types, which are:

1. Completion: those who completed the training objective by either completing the full course on schedule, or completing the course early, or accepting a full-time job before completing the full course.

2. Noncompletion: those who quit or were discharged, or for other reasons prematurely terminated the training before completing the training objective.

The independent variables in this study pertain to socio-economic characteristics of trainees in the programs. Some of the characteristics need to be defined in a manner that allows for empirical examination.

Those that need further definition consist of the following:

1. Disadvantaged: an individual who is not suitably employed, is either a school dropout, under 22 years of age, 45 years or over, handicapped, or subject to special obstacles to employment. He must also be a member of a family that either receives welfare payments or has a net income that doesn't exceed the following income criteria:

<u>Family Size</u>	<u>Non-Farm Income</u>	<u>Farm Income</u>
1	\$ 2,000	\$ 1,700
2	2,600	2,100
3	3,300	2,800
4	4,000	3,400
5	4,700	4,000
6	5,300	4,500
7	5,900	5,000

For families with more than seven members, \$600 is added for each additional member in a non-farm family and \$500 for each additional member in a farm family.⁴

2. Education: most of the applicants to the manpower programs list their level of formal education in terms of the years actually completed; however, some participants have taken high school equivalence

⁴Ibid.

tests (G.E.D.). In this study, the author has made no distinction between those who actually attended high school and those who passed a G.E.D. test.

3. Past Unemployment: refers to the total number of weeks the trainee has been unemployed during the past year. It refers to all unemployment, not just consecutive weeks.

4. Number of Dependents: includes all dependent adults and children but not the applicant.

5. Welfare Recipient: is designated as anyone receiving financial aid under any one of the following at the time of application:

- a. Old Age Assistance (Title I)
- b. Aid to Families with Dependent Children (Title IV)
- c. Aid to the Blind (Title X)
- d. Aid to the Permanently and Totally Disabled (Title IV)
- e. Aid to the Aged, Blind or Disabled (Title XVII)

The definition does not include those receiving food stamps, pensions or survivors insurance.⁵

6. Poverty: a person is considered living in poverty if he meets the income criteria listed under "Disadvantaged."

⁵Ibid.

ANALYSIS

In calculating the data, percentages were rounded to whole numbers. The Chi-Square test is used in determining statistical significance. The Chi-Square test is a general test which is used in this study to evaluate whether or not frequencies which have been empirically obtained differ significantly from those which would be expected. The expected values for each cell are computed under the assumption that the null hypothesis is true.

The Chi-Square formula is given as follows:

$$\chi^2 = \frac{(\text{observed} - \text{expected})^2}{\text{expected}} \quad (r-1)(c-1) \text{ df}$$

The .05 level of significance was chosen as the acceptable level for the purposes of this study.

ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

Hypothesis 1: There is no association between sex and racial characteristics of trainees and their completion of the selected manpower training programs.

TABLE I

	White				Non-White			
	Male		Female		Male		Female	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Completion	31	54	68	77	4	20	18	49
Non-Completion	26	46	20	23	16	80	19	51
Totals	57	100	88	100	20	100	37	100

$\chi^2 = 27.30$ d.f. = 3 P < .05

Results of the analysis of the pooled data in Table I indicate a significant difference between the groups regarding the nature of their terminations from the program. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Results of the analysis of Table II provide an intra-racial comparison between the sexes among the whites. Analysis of Table III provides an intra-racial comparison between the sexes of non-whites and analysis of Table IV provides an inter-racial comparison of whites and non-whites. All comparisons indicate significant differences; however, the results of the inter-racial and intra-racial tests must be presented with some qualification. They are not independent comparisons in the true meaning of the term in that they are not additive. The sum of the chi-square values do not add up to the chi-square value found in the pooled data. However, all chi-square values derived are significant at the .05 percent level. Based on this evidence, the author accepts the inter-racial and intra-racial differences in program completion in Tables II, III and IV to be significant.

The sample of trainees in the JOBS programs consisted of 157 persons. There were 120 males and 37 females within the sample. The whites among the sample numbered 145 and the non-whites numbered 57. As in the MDTA sample, all non-whites consisted of American Indians. Sixty-four percent of the participants in the JOBS programs completed their training while 36 percent did not.

TABLE II

NATURE OF TERMINATION OF WHITE PARTICIPANTS
IN MDTA PROGRAM BY SEX

	Male	Female
Completion	31	68
Non-Completion	26	20
Totals	57	88
<hr/>		
$\chi^2 = 8.37$	d.f. = 1	$P < .05$

TABLE III

NATURE OF TERMINATION OF NON-WHITE PARTICIPANTS
IN MDTA PROGRAM BY SEX

	Male	Female
Completion	4	18
Non-Completion	16	19
Totals	20	37
<hr/>		
$\chi^2 = 4.05$	d.f. = 1	$P < .05$

TABLE IV
NATURE OF TERMINATION OF PARTICIPANTS
IN MDTA PROGRAM BY RACE

	White	Non-White
Completion	99	22
Non-Completion	46	35
Totals	145	57
$\chi^2 = 14.99$ $d.f. = 1$ $P < .05$		

The data were pooled with regards to sex and racial characteristics as presented in Table V. However, because of inadequate frequencies, columns one and two were combined and columns three and four were combined in order to test the significance of the difference between white and non-white in regards to the nature of their terminations. Sixty-nine percent of the non-whites completed training, whereas 63 percent of the whites completed the training. Results of the analysis indicate that the differences between the groups are not significant. The null hypothesis is not rejected.

Table VI provides a comparison between the white males and white females. Because the results of analysis indicated no significant difference, the null hypothesis failed to be rejected. There was an insufficient number of non-white participants in the JOBS programs to provide a test of significant differences between males and females with regards to program completion.

TABLE V

NATURE OF TERMINATION OF PARTICIPANTS
IN JOBS PROGRAMS BY SEX AND RACE

	White				Non-White			
	Male		Female		Male		Female	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Completion	68	62	21	66	6	55	5	100
Non-Completion	41	38	11	34	5	45	0	0
Totals	109	100	32	100	11	100	5	100

$$\chi^2 = 1.92$$

$$d.f. = 1$$

$$P > .05$$

NOTE: Columns 1 and 2 and columns 3 and 4 were combined in calculations.

TABLE VI

NATURE OF TERMINATION OF WHITE PARTICIPANTS
IN JOBS PROGRAMS BY SEX

	Male	Female
Completion	68	21
Non-Completion	41	11
Totals	109	32

$$\chi^2 = 0.11$$

$$d.f. = 1$$

$$P > .05$$

Hypothesis 2: There is no association between the educational level attained by trainees and their completion of the selected manpower training programs.

The years of formal education attained by the trainees in the MDTA program are given in Table VII. Analysis of the data reveal that 65 percent of the trainees had twelve or more years of education. The percentage of those completing the program rises as their years of formal education increases. Only 30 percent of the trainees with seven to nine years of education completed the program; whereas, 52 percent of those with ten to eleven years of education, 69 percent of those with twelve to thirteen years of education, and 75 percent of those with fourteen or more years of education completed the program.

Results of the analysis of the data in Table VII indicate that a significant difference exists between the groups. The null hypothesis is rejected.

TABLE VII

NATURE OF TERMINATION OF PARTICIPANTS
IN MDTA PROGRAM BY LEVEL OF EDUCATION

	Years of Formal Education							
	7-9		10-11		12-13		14-15	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Completion	9	30	22	52	87	69	3	75
Non-Completion	21	70	20	48	39	31	1	25
Totals	30	100	42	100	126	100	4	100
$\chi^2 = 13.32$				d.f. = 1				$P < .05$

NOTE: Columns 1 and 2 and columns 3 and 4 were combined in calculations.

The years of formal education attained by the trainees in the JOBS programs are given in Table VIII. Analysis of the data reveal that 78 percent of the trainees had twelve or more years of education. The percentage of those completing training increases as the amount of education increases. However, the increases are not large. The lowest percentage of program completion occurred in the seven to nine grade level with 43 percent completion. The largest percentage of completion was experienced by those with fourteen to fifteen years of education.

Results of the analysis indicate that the differences between the groups are not significant. The null hypothesis is not rejected.

TABLE VIII

NATURE OF TERMINATION OF PARTICIPANTS
IN JOBS PROGRAMS BY EDUCATION

	Years of Formal Education							
	7-9		10-11		12-13		14-15	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Completion	10	43	12	60	67	62	9	64
Non-Completion	13	57	8	40	31	38	5	36
Totals	23	100	20	100	109	100	14	100
$\chi^2 = 2.91$ d.f. = 1 P > .05								

NOTE: Columns 1 and 2 and columns 3 and 4 were combined in calculations.

Hypothesis 3: There is no association between the extent of past unemployment of trainees and their completion of the selected manpower training programs.

The weeks of unemployment experienced by the trainees within a year prior to their participation in the MDTA program are given in Table IX. Forty-five trainees reported having experienced no unemployment during the preceding year. Persons in this group usually consisted of those who were either underemployed or too young to have participated in the labor force. It was anticipated from the review of literature that the percent of those completing the program would decrease as the number of weeks of unemployment increased; however, the data reveal that the opposite occurred. With the exception of those who experienced no unemployment, the percentage of those completing the program increased as the number of weeks of previous unemployment increased.

Although the results are not as anticipated, the results of the statistical analysis indicate that the differences are significant. The null hypothesis is rejected.

TABLE IX

NATURE OF TERMINATION OF PARTICIPANTS IN MDTA
PROGRAM BY PAST UNEMPLOYMENT

	Weeks of Unemployment							
	0		1-24		25-51		52 & over	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Completion	37	82	33	48	27	56	24	60
Non-Completion	8	18	36	52	21	44	16	40
Totals	45	100	69	100	48	100	40	100

$$\chi^2 = 8.37$$

$$d.f. = 3$$

$$P < .05$$

The weeks of previous unemployment experienced by the participants in the JOBS programs are given in Table X. As was found concerning the MDTA trainees, the JOBS programs trainees who had the highest percentage of completion were those that had either no previous unemployment or had 52 weeks unemployment. Comparing those who experienced one to 24 weeks unemployment with those with 25 to 51 weeks, the percentage of completion is lower with the longer unemployment period. This was anticipated from the review of literature. It is noted that 82 percent of the trainees fall within the range of previous unemployment from one to 51 weeks.

Results of the analysis indicate that the differences between the groups are significant. The null hypothesis is rejected.

TABLE X

NATURE OF TERMINATION OF PARTICIPANTS IN JOBS
PROGRAMS BY PAST UNEMPLOYMENT

	Weeks of Unemployment							
	0		1-24		25-51		52 & over	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Completion	10	76	64	67	15	45	11	73
Non-Completion	3	24	31	33	19	55	4	27
Totals	13	100	95	100	34	100	15	100
<hr/>								
$\chi^2 = 7.99$			d.f. = 3			P < .05		

Hypothesis 4: There is no association between the previous experience as a welfare recipient by the trainees and their completion of the selected manpower training programs.

The association between those who were welfare recipients when they entered the MDTA program and completion of the program is given in Table XI. The number who were welfare recipients is very low, comprising less than eight percent of the sample. The results of the analysis of the data do not indicate that significant differences exist. The null hypothesis is not rejected.

TABLE XI

NATURE OF TERMINATION OF PARTICIPANTS IN MDTA PROGRAM
BY CLASSIFICATION AS WELFARE RECIPIENT

	<u>Welfare Recipient</u>		<u>Non-Recipient</u>	
	No.	%	No.	%
Completion	10	63	111	60
Non-Completion	6	37	75	40
Totals	16	100	186	100
<hr/>				
$\chi^2 = 0.06$	d.f. = 1		$P > .05$	

The comparison between the previous status of trainees in the JOBS programs as welfare recipients and program completion is given in Table XII. The data reveal that very few were welfare recipients, comprising less than eight percent of the sample. Sixty-seven percent of the welfare recipients completed the training which is a greater percentage of completion than those who were not welfare recipients. However, the results of the analysis indicate that the differences are not significant. The null hypothesis is not rejected.

TABLE XII

NATURE OF TERMINATION OF PARTICIPANTS IN JOBS
PROGRAMS BY CLASSIFICATION
AS WELFARE RECIPIENT

	<u>Welfare Recipient</u>		<u>Non-Recipient</u>	
	No.	%	No.	%
Completion	8	67	92	63
Non-Completion	4	33	53	37
Totals	12	100	145	100
<hr/>				
$\chi^2 = 0.32$	d.f. = 1		P > .05	

Hypothesis 5: There is no association between position as head-of-household of trainees and their completion of the selected manpower training programs.

Results of analysis of data, in Table XIII, reveal that sixty-two percent of the participants in the MDTA program were considered as heads-of-households. Fifty-six percent of the heads-of-households completed training compared to 66 percent completion by those who were not heads-of-households. However, results of analysis indicate that the differences are not significant. The null hypothesis is not rejected.

Necessary data were not available for this author to determine which trainees in the JOBS programs were considered heads-of-households.

TABLE XIII

NATURE OF TERMINATION OF PARTICIPANTS IN MDTA PROGRAM
BY POSITION AS HEAD-OF-HOUSEHOLD

	Head-of-Household		Not Head-of-Household	
	No.	%	No.	%
Completion	70	56	51	66
Non-Completion	55	44	26	34
Totals	125	100	77	100
<hr/>				
$\chi^2 = 2.08$	d.f. = 1		$P > .05$	

Hypothesis 6: There is no association between the number of dependents of trainees and their completion of the selected manpower training programs.

Data on the number of dependents of trainees in the MDTA program are given in Table XIV. Most of the trainees had two or less dependents; only thirteen had six or more dependents. Those trainees with six or more dependents had the lowest percentage of completion. However, results of the analysis indicate that the differences are not significant. The null hypothesis is not rejected.

Hypothesis 7: There is no association between the disadvantaged status of trainees and their completion of the selected manpower training programs.

Eighty-eight percent of the trainees in the MDTA program were considered to be disadvantaged. Results of the analysis of the data in Table XVI reveal that 56 percent of the disadvantaged trainees completed training compared to 88 percent completion by those who were not disadvantaged. Results of the analysis indicate that the results are significant. The null hypothesis is rejected.

TABLE XVI

NATURE OF TERMINATION OF PARTICIPANTS IN MDTA
PROGRAMS BY DISADVANTAGED STATUS

	<u>Disadvantaged</u>		<u>Not Disadvantaged</u>	
	No.	%	No.	%
Completion	99	56	22	88
Non-Completion	78	44	3	12
Totals	177	100	25	100
<hr/>				
$\chi^2 = 9.37$	d.f. = 1		$P < .05$	

Eighty-nine percent of the participants in the JOBS programs were considered disadvantaged. The number of disadvantaged trainees in the JOBS programs is presented in Table XVII. Of the 17 trainees not considered disadvantaged, only one did not complete the program; whereas, 60 percent of the disadvantaged trainees did not complete the programs. Results of the analysis indicates that the differences presented in Table XVII are significant. The null hypothesis is rejected.

TABLE XVII

NATURE OF TERMINATION OF PARTICIPANTS IN JOBS
PROGRAMS BY DISADVANTAGED STATUS

	<u>Disadvantaged</u>		<u>Not Disadvantaged</u>	
	No.	%	No.	%
Completion	84	60	16	94
Non-Completion	56	40	1	6
Totals	140	100	17	100
<hr/>				
$\chi^2 = 7.36$	d.f. = 1		$P < .05$	

Hypothesis 8: There is no association between the age of trainees and their completion of the selected manpower training programs.

Forty-six percent of the sample of MDTA trainees were 17 to 22 years of age, 41 percent were from 23 to 40, and 13 percent were 41 years of age or older. Table XVIII presents the comparison between three different age groupings of MDTA trainees with regard to program completion. The lowest rate of completion was experienced by those 23 to 40 years of age. However, results of analysis indicate that the differences between the groups are not significant. The null hypothesis is not rejected.

Thirty-nine percent of the trainees in the JOBS programs were 17 to 22 years of age, 47 percent were 23 to 40, and 14 percent were 41 years of age or older. Comparisons between the different age groupings of participants in the JOBS programs with regard to program completion are presented in Table XIX. The lowest rate of completion was experienced by those 41 years of age or older. Only 41 percent

of the 41 and over age group completed the program compared to 69 percent completion by those 23 to 40. However, results of analysis indicate that the differences are not significant at the .05 level. The null hypothesis is not rejected.

TABLE XVIII

NATURE OF TERMINATION OF PARTICIPANTS
IN MDTA PROGRAM BY AGE

	Age of Participant					
	17-22		23-40		41 & over	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Completion	58	62	47	57	16	59
Non-Completion	35	38	35	43	11	41
Totals	93	100	82	100	27	100
<hr/>						
$\chi^2 = 0.483$	d.f. = 2				$P > .05$	

TABLE XIX

NATURE OF TERMINATION OF PARTICIPANTS
IN JOBS PROGRAMS BY AGE

	Age of Participant					
	17-22		23-40		41 & over	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Completion	40	66	51	69	9	41
Non-Completion	21	34	23	31	13	59
Totals	61	100	74	100	22	100
<hr/>						
$\chi^2 = 5.90$	d.f. = 2				$P > .05$	

Hypothesis 9: There is no association between the previous income level of trainees and their completion of the selected manpower training programs.

The previous income of participants in the MDTA program are presented as being either "below the poverty level" or "not below the poverty level." Whether or not a participant's income was below the poverty level was determined by the income qualifications under the definition of "disadvantaged." Eighty-two percent of the trainees in the MDTA program were considered to have had poverty incomes. Table XX presents the number of trainees in the MDTA program with incomes below the poverty level. Those trainees above the poverty level had the highest percentage of completion; however, the results of analysis indicates the differences presented are not significant. The null hypothesis is not rejected.

Available data on the JOBS programs trainees were not sufficient to determine a poverty level as was done in Table XX. Instead, the trainees were grouped into those with a previous family income of \$2,999 or less and those with an income greater than \$2,999. The group with a previous income above \$2,999 had the highest completion rate. Table XXI presents the comparison of previous income of participants in the JOBS programs and program completion. The results of analysis indicate that the difference between the groups is not significant. The null hypothesis is not rejected.

TABLE XX

NATURE OF TERMINATION OF PARTICIPANTS IN MDTA
PROGRAM BY POVERTY INCOME STATUS

	<u>Below</u> <u>Poverty Level</u>		<u>Not Below</u> <u>Poverty Level</u>	
	No.	%	No.	%
Completion	94	57	26	70
Non-Completion	71	43	11	30
Totals	165	100	37	100
<hr/>				
$\chi^2 = 2.22$	d.f. = 1		$P > .05$	

TABLE XXI

NATURE OF TERMINATION OF PARTICIPANTS IN JOBS
PROGRAMS BY INCOME

	<u>Below 2,999</u>		<u>Above 2,999</u>	
	No.	%	No.	%
Completion	55	60	43	66
Non-Completion	37	40	22	34
Totals	92	100	65	100
<hr/>				
$\chi^2 = 0.66$	d.f. = 1		$P > .05$	

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

SUMMARY

There has been little research concerned with federally sponsored manpower training programs operating in rural areas. Declining occupational opportunities, unemployment, underemployment, and poverty are problems facing many people in the rural areas of South Dakota. Compared to most states, South Dakota has a high proportion of American Indians, most of whom reside on reservations. Due to the low economic base and isolation of the reservations, the Indian labor force experiences high rates of unemployment and much underemployment.

The purpose of this study is to examine selected manpower training programs currently operating in South Dakota. This is primarily an exploratory study and has as its central focus the determination of socio-economic characteristics of participants that are associated with training outcomes within selected manpower training programs.

A review of literature revealed a study conducted in an urban area that was very similar to this study in some of its objectives. However, the urban situation is not congruent to the rural situation and the urban study had no American Indians among its non-white group. No comparable study of manpower programs was found that included Indian trainees.

The theoretical framework examined the relationship of social strata positions and their attendant differential socialization patterns to status group membership and the likelihood of vertical career mobility.

Two manpower training programs selected for this study were: "The Job Opportunity in the Business Sector (JOBS)," and one of the "Manpower Development and Training Act (MDTA)" programs. Data were obtained from the Employment Security Department of South Dakota and contained information from the application and termination forms filled out for every participant in the selected training programs. Data were available for 202 trainees in the MDTA program and 157 trainees in the JOBS programs.

It was hypothesized that the socio-economic characteristics of the trainees would be associated with their completion of the MDTA and JOBS programs. The specific socio-economic characteristics that were tested for association with program completion were:

1. sex and race
2. length of previous unemployment
3. experience as a welfare recipient
4. position as head-of-household
5. number of dependents
6. considered "disadvantaged"
7. age
8. previous income level

The chi-square test was employed to test for the existence of statistical significance. The .05 level was chosen as the acceptable level of significance.

CONCLUSIONS

The MDTA Program

Five different socio-economic variables are significantly associated with participants completion of the MDTA program. They are:

1. Sex and race were found to be significantly associated with completion when considered individually or in combination. The white female had the highest rate of completion and the non-white male had the lowest. The finding that the majority of the Indians, both male and female, are not completing the MDTA program suggests the particular importance of racial and cultural factors to training outcomes.
2. Qualifying for certification as disadvantaged is significantly associated with the participants' completion of the MDTA program. The criteria for determining if a trainee is disadvantaged includes different combinations of such factors as income, age, unemployment, education, and welfare reciprocity. Some of these variables were not found to be individually significant but results of analysis indicate that selected combinations of these variables are significant.

3. Formal education of trainees, measured by grade level attained, is significantly associated with completion of the MDTA program. The data indicate that the higher the level of formal education a trainee has attained before entering this institutional program, the more likely he is to complete the program.

4. The length of previous unemployment of a trainee is significantly associated with completion of the MDTA program. It was anticipated from the review of literature that those with the greatest amount of previous unemployment would be the least likely to complete the training program. Results of the analysis revealed this to be the case to the extent that those who had experienced no previous unemployment had the highest percentage of completion. However, the results also indicated that those with one to 25 weeks of previous unemployment had a lower percentage of completion than those with over 25 weeks previous unemployment.

Those socio-economic variables that are not significantly associated with participants' completion of the MDTA program are:

1. past experience as a welfare recipient
2. position as the head-of-household
3. the number of dependents
4. age
5. previous income

The JOBS Programs

Only two socio-economic characteristics of participants are significantly associated with completion of the JOBS programs. They are:

1. Qualifying for certification as disadvantaged is significantly associated with participants' completion of the programs. As was pointed out under the section dealing with the MDTA program, a person considered disadvantaged may be characterized by combinations of a number of different socio-economic attributes.

2. The length of previous unemployment is significantly associated with participants' completion of the JOBS programs. It was anticipated from the review of literature that the percentage of participants completing the programs would decrease as the weeks of previous unemployment increased. Results of the analysis indicate this to be the case for all groups except those with 52 or more weeks unemployment.

Those socio-economic variables not found to be significantly associated with completion of the JOBS programs are:

1. sex and race
2. past experience as a welfare recipient
3. years of formal education attained
4. number of dependents
5. age
6. previous income

General Conclusions

Results of the analyses indicate that more of the socio-economic attributes of MDTA participants are associated with training outcomes than attributes of JOBS programs participants. Insofar as the MDTA group studied is concerned, the participant least likely to complete the program is a non-white male with seven to nine years of formal education who is considered disadvantaged and has been unemployed one to 25 weeks within the last year. An insufficient number of socio-economic attributes of JOBS programs participants were significantly associated with training outcomes to permit development of a similar profile.

The review of literature noted that a study of manpower programs in urban areas found that the trainee attributes of age, sex, education and race were significant when compared in combinations with training outcomes. None of these variables, taken separately, were found to be significant in regard to the JOBS programs and age was not found to be significant in regard to the MDTA program. However, the fact that significant differences in program completion were found between the disadvantaged and those not disadvantaged suggests that the attributes may be significant when considered in combinations.

The disadvantaged were considered to be a particular status group in the theoretical framework of this study. Selected socio-economic characteristics of persons determines their certification as disadvantaged. Thus, attempts by the participants for career mobility through completion of MDTA and JOBS training programs are significantly

associated with their status group membership. It is presumed that the socio-economic attributes of the disadvantaged which differentiate them from members of other status groups are due to different socialization experiences and social strata positions, thereby lending support to the theoretical framework of this research.

IMPLICATIONS

Recommendations For Further Research

This investigator recommends that further research concerned with manpower training programs in rural areas examine a wider spectrum of variables in their association with successful career mobility. Socio-psychological factors such as self-perception, feelings of powerlessness, reference groups, aspirations, and motivations should be looked at. Other factors that may operate as intervening variables include the type and length of instruction, the extent of anticipated upward career mobility, the availability of jobs, and attitudes towards work. The measurement of many of these variables will require the use of field interviews as well as secondary sources of data.

The author further recommends that follow-ups of both completer and non-completers should be used to determine the degree of successful career mobility over a longer period of time. Both objective and subjective criteria should be used.

Regarding the American Indians, further research needs to be conducted to determine to what extent the "marginal" characteristics of many Indians are due to lack of acculturation into the majority

society. Also, how many of their marginal characteristics are representative of their status grouping rather than racial membership.

More of the variables examined in this study should be pooled to look at their significance in combinations. The interrelationships between the variables should also be examined to determine which are the most significant.

One of the most important questions raised by this study is: "Why do the socio-economic characteristics of JOBS programs trainees tend to have less association with training outcomes than the characteristics of MDTA program trainees?"

Limitations

The limitations of this study are:

1. Completion of training is only one criterion of success.

A follow-up of both the completers and non-completers would add strength to the findings.

2. There are sources of possible variance which a study of this type is not able to control. Examples include the pull of the labor market, the difficulty of the programs, trainer-trainee relationships, and the psychological attributes of the trainees.

Practical Application

For those who have the responsibility for developing programs that will best meet the needs of the individuals and communities involved, information regarding those factors which significantly influence trainee performance will facilitate their decision-making.

Knowledge as to what factors are not significantly associated with the training outcomes of the various programs is also of benefit. For those who have the responsibilities for counseling, selecting, and referring trainees, and for those responsible for the training aspects of the programs, it is anticipated that this knowledge will also be helpful.

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